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Editorial

PRESIDENT DABNEY AND THE CLASSICS

In a brief address of welcome to the Classical Conference, President Dabney, of the University of Cincinnati, expressed some sensible ideas which it seems appropriate to leave with our readers as we close our seventh volume. The following extracts are quoted from the whole address:

We sincerely hope that you will capture us for the classical culture. Not that we are any worse, classically speaking, than the people of other great commercial centers; but, because we are a great industrial community and must pay much attention to vocational training, we need you all the more. Our modern education boasts loudly that it is scientific in method; but I sincerely hope that it is not also rationalistic in spirit and wholly utilitarian in purpose. If so, we must find some effective agency for cherishing within us the ideal, which, I take it, is the business and function of all literature, and especially of the classical.

If a barbarian may make a plea for these subjects, it will be for the literary study of the classic texts, and the historical study of the Greek and Roman peoples. By literary study I do not mean merely the reading of the best authors, and by historical study I do not mean the mere study of Greek and Roman institutions. I venture to say that the literal study of the classics must be based on three things: first, the influence of the time and environment upon the author, the things that made him what he was; second, the author's message to his own times—its origin, its meaning, and its effect on his own generation; third, the interpretation of this message to the people of our time.

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE TEN THOUSAND

By ROBERT J. BONNER The University of Chicago

The history of the "Ten Thousand," as it is told in the Anabasis, is divided into four periods, marked by the death of Cyrus, the betrayal of the generals, the arrival at the sea, and the incorporation with the army of Thibron. During the first two periods their organization was purely military; but from the time of their entrance into the Carduchian mountains the social and political features were predominant. For they were "not an ordinary army, but rather a democracy of ten thousand citizens equipped as soldiers, serving no king, responsible to no state, a law unto themselves, electing their officers, and deciding all matters of importance in a sovereign popular assembly—as it were a great moving city." Similiar observations have been made by all historians of Greece.

One of the most serious difficulties in securing an effective organization was race antagonism and jealousy. In one way or another race cleavage was constantly manifesting itself in this heterogeneous mass drawn from every part of the Greek world. Thus the Rhodians and Cretans were separately organized and armed with their national weapons. Thracians, Thessalians, and Mysians performed their national dances at a banquet given in honor of the Paphlagonian ambassadors (vi. 1. 5). Religious processions were performed κατὰ ἔθνος (v. 5. 5). The almost disastrous secession of the Arcadians who numbered 4,500 was due to race jealousy (vi. 2. 9). So too the desertion of 340 Thracians including the only cavalry force in the army was partly due to the lack of sympathy between them and the Greeks (ii. 2. 7). Diversity of dialect of which they were fully conscious appears to have been no barrier to easy communication.²

But their national Hellenic sentiment served to counteract in a large measure the disintegrating tendencies of racial jealousy. In

¹ Bury, History of Greece, p. 526.

^a Cf. Classical Journal, IV, 360.

the presence of barbarians they were all Greeks. Cyrus appeals to their national pride when he compliments them on their political freedom (i. 7. 3). And Tissaphernes pretends to be desirous of winning the gratitude of Hellas by saving the Greek troops of Cyrus. Again and again Xenophon appealed to their pride of Hellenic race to keep them in hand. And his detailed references to the services of Athens in the Persian wars before an audience largely drawn from the Peloponnesus shows that Hellenic sentiment prevailed throughout the army (iii. 2. 11).

The whole body of officers, corresponding roughly to a senate, constituted the government. The executive power was intrusted to the generals. In case of dispute the majority ruled (vi. 1. 18). The rank and file met when summoned by the generals. Large questions of general policy were decided by this body, guided by the recommendations of the generals. Such questions were the Persian peace proposals, the route to be taken in the retreat, the scheme to found a city. Committees and embassies were selected by the soldiers. In the general assembly anyone was free to make proposals touching the welfare of the community. As occasion demanded general regulations were enacted.

(1) When the whole army was engaged in plundering the proceeds were public property. (2) Everybody was required to assist the officers in enforcing discipline. (3) Communication with Persian officials was absolutely forbidden. (4) No one was permitted to leave the army until its safety was assured. (5) Proposals for dividing the army were forbidden under penalty of death. (6) Those found guilty of breach of treaty or violence toward friendly communities were liable to the death penalty. (7) Persons found guilty of instigating rioting or mob violence were liable to the death penalty.

Persons charged with infringing these rules or with wrongdoing of any kind could be brought before a court consisting of the captains (v. 7. 34). Before this court generals appeared to answer charges of malfeasance in office. Fines were imposed upon three.

¹ On one occasion (v. 7. I ff.) when the soldiers were greatly excited by the report that Xenophon intended to lead them to Phasis and were on the point of assembling of their own accord, Xenophon wisely decided to call them together. The moral effect of an unauthorized meeting would have been bad.

But trials might also be held before the whole body of soldiers. It would seem that Xenophon was tried before the general assembly (v. 8. 1.) for assault and battery. The proceedings were entirely informal. By a series of questions Xenophon showed that he was justified in striking the man whom, it appeared, he caught in the act of burying an invalid alive. The verdict of acquittal was unanimous. The death penalty would no doubt have been inflicted by the soldiers armed with stones or other missiles.

Fines were paid into a common fund recruited chiefly by the proceeds of plunder, and in the later stages of the march by presents from various communities. This money was used in a variety of ways. When a body of slingers was organized men were paid to make slings. Ships to carry the women and children, the sick and infirm, and the superfluous baggage were chartered by the army. Guides were rewarded by presents from the common store. The expense of public religious rites was defrayed by the army. On one occasion the proceeds from the sale of prisoners was distributed. One-tenth was reserved for religious purposes. In times of scarcity provisions were distributed. Only in this way could the necessities of the improvident or the wounded be relieved. No mention of the final disposition of the fund is made.

The care of the wounded and sick was recognized as a public duty. Early in the retreat eight men were appointed to care for the sick and wounded. The number seems very small. It may be that these were old campaigners who had acquired some skill in medicine and surgery. Their services were enlisted to aid the regular surgeons who no doubt accompanied the expedition. At times a considerable number must have been required for the work of carrying the wounded and their arms and baggage. Men selected for such service were rewarded by exemption from other duties. That the hospital service was far from perfect is shown by the fate of the sick man whom Xenophon rescued from being buried alive. The treatment consisted of cutting and cauterizing (v. 8. 18) and the application of simple lotions, and the administering of drugs for fever and other ailments. Stops were often made in the interest of the sick and the wounded. When the

¹ iii. 4. 30. Cf. Cousin, Kyros le Jeune en Asie mineure, p. 177.

army was encamped in the neighborhood of a town, arrangements were made to have them received in private houses. Sometimes force was used to obtain this privilege. The patients paid for their food (v. 5. 20) On reaching the sea they were conveyed in chartered ships.

The data available for estimating the efficiency of the medical arrangements are very meager. Cousin¹ accounts for the larger number in active service at Heraclea than at Cerasus by supposing that the healthful sea air and better food had restored a large number to health. Between these two points they had stormed a native stronghold with considerable loss. The four hundred who were sold into slavery by the governor of Byzantium were for the most part convalescents (vii. 2. 6). Deaths were due chiefly to wounds and the severe weather. Very few died of disease (v. 3. 3). No specific cases of cures are recorded. Men recovered from severe frostbites with the loss of toes, and were able to re-enter the ranks for active service. But what became of those who suffered from broken bones? We should gladly exchange some of the pious writer's accounts of funerals for a few details about cures. He does indeed tell us incidentally that Cherisophus died, not from the effects of the fever, but from the medicine which he took. It is scarcely necessary to remark that Nicarchus the Arcadian who rode into the Greek camp severely wounded to announce the betraval of the generals is not the Arcadian captain of the same name who deserted three or four days later. A wound which laid open the abdominal cavity could not have been healed in so short a time, if at all (ii. 5. 33; cf. iii. 3. 5).

There are indications that the soldiers were divided into messes. These are probably military divisions, but constituted self-governing units for certain purposes. Members of these groups were detailed by their companions to look after the transporting of baggage (v. 8. 6). In this way provision was doubtless made for the care of the wounded and the safety of the women who accompanied the expedition in large numbers.

Some have seen in Xenophon's proposal to found a city a desire on his part to realize some of the ideals of Socrates; but there is no

¹ Ibid., p. 150.

hint of this in the narrative. He professed to be desirous of acquiring territory and power for Greece. It was an attractive proposition. A large body of hardy veterans who had learned how to govern themselves could easily found a flourishing community on the shores of the Euxine. On reaching the sea the Greeks were safe, so far as the Persians were concerned, and those who had the means were in a position to secure return to their homes. But they desired, nor merely to return to Greece, but to improve their financial position. The desertion of any considerable number would make it extremely difficult for the rest to secure even their safe return. The founding of a city would have checked the tendency to desert and would have kept the army together until the men had an opportunity to obtain a competence. Eventually those who desired it could return to Greece without endangering the safety of the rest. This may be inferred from Xenophon's statements to the soldiers when he found the majority was opposed to his project: "If you had continued as destitute and unprovided as you were just now, I should still have looked out for a resource in the capture of some city which would have enabled such of you as chose to return at once, while the rest stay behind to enrich themselves. But there is no longer any necessity since Herakleia and Sinope are sending transports, and Timasion promises pay to you from the next new moon. Nothing can be better: you will go safely to Greece, and will receive pay for going thither. I desist at once from my scheme, and call upon all who were favorable to it to desist also. Only let us keep together until we are on safe ground."2

It would appear then that the founding of a city was regarded by Xenophon as the only available means for securing the safety of the army and relieving the poverty of the large number who were practically penniless. At an earlier time, when the chances of a successful retreat seemed well-nigh desperate, Xenophon may have conceived the idea of establishing themselves in the heart of the Persian empire; but at this time his intention was to seize a native

² v. 6. 15. Silanus spread the report that Xenophon desired έαυτ $\hat{\psi}$ δνομα καὶ δύναμιν περιποιήσασθαι.

² Grote, History of Greece, IX, 210.

city on the Euxine and reduce the neighboring population to subjection. Phasis had been suggested as a favorable place. But his enthusiastic description of Calpe (vi. 4. 1 ff.) as a suitable location for a city of ten thousand shows that he deemed it possible to find a favorable location unoccupied.

Curiously enough the idea of founding a city was first suggested by the anxiety of the Persians to have them withdraw from the rich agricultural district near Sittace, where they were encamped for a time. Rightly or wrongly Clearchus suspected that the Persians feared they would intrench themselves in this district, which was virtually an island, enslave the peasants, and offer a place of refuge for the king's enemies (ii. 4. 22). After the betrayal of the generals Xenophon in discussing the situation points to the Mysians and Lycaonians who had established themselves in the Persian empire, and suggests that if the Persians suspect them of a similar design they will grant them a safe-conduct from the country. But even at this time he hints at a permanent settlement when he warns them that if once they become acquainted with the pleasures of idleness and the charms of the handsome Persian and Median women they may, like the lotus-eaters, forget their homes (iii. 2. 23 ff.). It was not until they reached the Euxine that the idea was fully developed in Xenophon's mind; but being prematurely divulged it met with such serious opposition that Xenophon was obliged to drop it. The hostile attitude was due, he tells us, to the fact that these were not broken and masterless men, but respectable citizens with home ties who were anxious to return to their relatives (vi. 4. 8).

To the military basis of the organization were due certain undemocratic features, such as a court of captains to review the actions of the generals, and the virtual elections of generals by the officers of each division. But the democratic features were pronounced from the first and there was a noticeable growth of democratic spirit. Private soldiers were permitted and even encouraged to speak in the assemblies (iii. 2. 32; cf. v. 1. 2). Demagogues were not wanting who sought to make private gain out of their influence over the soldiers (v. 6. 19). Entirely democratic in the best sense is the readiness to listen to reason and argument rather

than to follow the impulses of passion or despair, or the dictates of self-interest. Grote has pointed out that Xenophon's success in rescuing the Greeks was in the main due to his ability to persuade. The decision to make every individual share in the responsibility for good discipline reflects the democratic principle according to which each citizen shared in the duties and responsibilities as well as the benefits of the body politic. In every matter it was fully recognized that the decision of the assembled soldiers was supreme. Thus while new generals were elected by the surviving officers in each division the nominations were submitted to the army for confirmation.

The forces which kept the army together were different at different times. During the march to the sea the pressure of their enemies made cohesion and individual subordination absolutely essential to their safety. But when they reached the confines of Hellas, and safety was assured, this motive for cohesion disappeared, and disorders and outrages resulted. The situation was becoming serious when Xenophon had the courage to bring the matter to the attention of the assembled soldiers in a powerful arraignment of mob violence and individual license (v. 7. 13). This appeal to their political instincts and sensus communis was successful, for no serious acts of individual insubordination occurred afterward. During the last stages of the retreat the authority of the Spartan officers acted as a wholesome check. here Xenophon's influence and oratory were necessary to prevent them from carrying out the rash plan to seize and sack Byzantium (vii. 1. 25). On the whole we can readily agree with Bury that "it is a remarkable spectacle, this large body of soldiers managing their own affairs, deciding what they would do, determining where they would go, seldom failing to listen to the voice of reason in their assemblies, whether it was the voice of Xenophon or of another."

² Cf. Grote, op. cit., IX, 215 ff.

LIVE FACTORS IN LATIN TEACHING

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All devices which tend to instil interest in the private and public life of the Romans, and which encourage collateral reading in the history, mythology, and antiquities of the classic past, constitute a valuable asset in the teaching of high-school Latin. The use of illustrative material—such as models, prints, coins, lantern slides, Latin plays, etc.—is justified in the vital reaction upon the study of the texts through what the Germans call Realien. The laboratory method of teaching Roman antiquities in high school, however, has its limitations and dangers. In the first place, the student should be encouraged, as far as possible, to make his own illustrative material: this implies leisure for collateral reading and research. In the second place, a knowledge of history and antiquities is merely subsidiary: the main object in the study of Latin is to acquire a mastery of the language per se as a medium for classical culture, as well as to furnish a basis for formal linguistic training in English. It is well, therefore, at the outset to state that all instruction in the art, literature, and archaeology of the Romans must be largely incidental. In our attempt to vivify the classics, we must never lose sight of the fact that there is no royal road to a knowledge of declensions and the technique of language. Hard, incessant drill on forms and vocabulary is essential. No method has ever been advanced by an enthusiastic faddist which will remove the necessity for constant, systematic drill on paradigms and syntax in the first two years. If, however, anything can be done meanwhile to arouse enthusiasm in "gerund-grinding" and excite interest in the language as the vehicle of ancient life and thought, it behooves the teacher to consider the propriety of such aid. It is our purpose to attempt a brief résumé of methods of humanizing the study of Latin in secondary schools.

First of all, we must frankly admit that subjective stimuli, inherent in the subject-matter of the text and the linguistic method of the teacher, are vastly more important than objective stimuli, which are at best only artificial and suggestive. The teacher must be a living force in the classroom. The best teaching is always incidental. The teacher of Latin should possess Sprachgefühl and be imbued with enthusiasm for the classics, which will come solely from extensive reading in the Latin authors. This is a prerequisite for an intelligent survey of the Latin field. Every teacher should do considerable professional reading every year; he must know Latin first-hand and cultivate ability to read it fluently and accurately before he can become its inspired apostle, imbued with its spirit and power.

The scientific spirit that pervades modern education is in itself the best guaranty that no really vital subject will ever be dropped from the curriculum. The status of Latin is therefore largely dependent upon its correlation with modern interests, as well as its value as a disciplinary agent. Concrete results must be sought and our teaching vitalized at every point. The laboratory method implies research and emphasizes practical results in Latin teaching. If in common parlance Latin is a "dead" language, we should strive to show that it lives in the living English of today. Introduce the notebook method for vocabulary drill. Lodge's Vocabulary of High School Latin will serve as a source-book. Prepare typewritten lists of the five hundred words used most frequently by each author. Place the same in the hands of the student with instructions to rule the pages in columns for the following data: the word and its principal parts (if a verb), or genitive singular (if a noun or adjective), gender, meaning, and English derivative (if any). Inasmuch as only the first form of the word is given by the teacher, the student is forced to consult his vocabulary or a large lexicon for the required information; this, combined with the mechanical act of tabulating his material, causes him to react sufficiently upon each word to retain a comparatively vivid impression of it. The most vital part of this scheme is the prominence given to the English derivative, which tests the student's vocabulary and initiates him into the mystery of analysis and the perennial charm of word lore.

² Cf. E. Riess, "Natural and Artificial Stimuli in Teaching Latin," Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1910.

It has been found advisable to hold occasional word contests based upon the vocabulary notebooks, conducted upon the order of an old-time "spelling-bee." Much enthusiasm can thus be aroused if the various divisions of the same class are placed in competition and the element of class rivalry is injected into the work. The writer uses a score board properly ruled, showing in columns the number of words missed daily by the respective divisions during the contest. One division achieved the enviable record of having missed only two words out of five hundred, while two other divisions were close rivals for a perfect score. A definite number of words should be assigned in advance each day for study and the same list dictated to each division. Two weeks should suffice for such a contest, requiring only a few minutes daily: the return in enthusiasm and zeal for Latin words and their English derivatives will pay compound interest upon the investment. At this point, in company with a writer in the Classical Weekly, we wish to sound a note of warning, to wit: "dead words do not a language make nor printed lists a page." The pupil must regard word lists as a means only, a systematic way to gather and fix knowledge which is useful only when applied to the living page.

An article which proposes to discuss ways to vitalize the teaching of Latin cannot ignore the claims of the viva voce method, by which Latin is taught essentially as a modern language. Some of the standard beginners' books contain Colloquia for formal conversation in class. The serious objection to question-and-answer exercises of this sort is that they readily degenerate into mechanical and monotonous repetitions, without extending the scope of the student's syntactical knowledge. The solution, as in the case of all artificial devices or stimuli, depends in the last analysis upon the personality and resourcefulness of the teacher. He should possess a certain fluency as well as a generous store of Latin phrases and colloquial or stereotyped expressions, so that confidence and versatility of ideas may result. Any student can readily learn the technical expressions and the mechanics of ordinary classroom conversation, so that the viva voce method may be pursued for routine grammatical drill. But we maintain that colloquial exercises of this sort should subserve a higher purpose;

they should vitalize and enliven a recitation by affording an opportunity for the introduction of modern ideas and the more simple experiences of everyday life, clothed in sprightly and idiomatic Latin. We must strive to make our students feel that the Romans were intensely human and that, like us, they expressed their hopes, their fears, their joys, their sorrows in plain, straightforward speech—far removed from the involved, periodic style of the orator or historian. Conversations of this kind, dealing with everyday experiences, tend more than anything else to dispel the opinion, current among students, that Latin is highly artificial and utterly incapable of expressing up-to-date ideas.

Every Latin room should contain a small collection of Roman coins—either originals or electrotypes—books of photographic prints, portrait busts of the classic authors, lantern slides, and a select library of standard books on classical subjects. A small collection of Roman coins representing the authors read in high school may be purchased at nominal cost. The historic significance of such a collection is at once apparent; students feel a thrill of real interest when permitted to handle these coins, much worn by contemporaries of Caesar, Cicero, and Vergil.²

Among other vitalizing agencies that stimulate interest, and throw, as it were, sidelights upon classic life, may be mentioned student models of Roman engines of war, such as the tormenta, gladius, pilum, and scutum; Caesar's bridge; Latin luncheons, entertainments, games, Latin plays, talks on classical pictures in the classroom and halls, classical clubs, Latin music, the Roman state, studies in local architecture exemplifying classic ideas, and ad infinitum.³ The students in the Latin department should be encouraged to establish the nucleus for a small but growing collection of models for the illustration of the classics. The lantern, long regarded as an indispensable adjunct in the science laboratory,

¹Cf. Georg Capellanus, Sprechen Sie Lateinisch? Moderne Konversation in Lateinischer Sprache. Leipzig. M. 2.

² For five dollars the writer bought a series of four genuine coins as follows: a *quinarius* coined by M. Cato in 101 B.C.; a beautiful *denarius* minted by Caesar in 50 B.C.; an as and a *quadrans* in circulation in Vergil's day (ca. 15 B.C.).

³ Cf. The Classical Weekly and the Classical Journal for detailed accounts of the above methods of arousing interest in Roman life. The Classical Journal from the beginning has given space for the publication of notices of all school activities which have as their aim the correlation of the classics and the students' daily interests.

is now being utilized everywhere with gratifying results. The writer has adopted the practice of giving a series of after-school stereopticon "readings" on Latin subjects, which have met with unusual success. Attendance is always made optional. Much information can thus be given on collateral subjects—art, literature, and antiquities—which could never find legitimate place in the recitation. Students have been stimulated to read, and the public and the school libraries have been called upon to supply the demand for supplementary books. The following is a list of recent lectures:

- 1. Vergil and the Aeneid, illustrated with forty lantern slides.
- The Importance of Latin and Its Correlation with Other High-School Subjects.
- The Development of Greek and Roman Art, illustrated with fourteen charts and numerous prints and pictures.
- 4. The Influence of the Classics in the Renaissance.
- 5. Caesar and His Gallic Campaigns, illustrated with eighty lantern slides.
- 6. Pompeii, illustrated with forty-two slides.

After a cursory survey of various devices to humanize the classics, it remains to be said that the most fruitful source of inspiration for the teacher comes from a sojourn in classic lands. Nothing is so illuminating as actual contact with the modern representatives of the Greeks and Romans, amid the scenes immortalized in classic prose and verse. Under the mystic spell of the Acropolis and the Forum, we feel anew the "glory that was Greece and the grandeur that was Rome." We can visualize and help our students see more clearly the setting of events if we ourselves have actually visited the scenes described. Nothing broadens one's mental horizon so much as travel. The German government has recognized the educative value of travel and has provided Reize Stipendien for teachers in the Gymnasia. Modern exploration and excavation in Italy and Greece—notably at Pompeii and Mycenae—have thrown new light upon the classic past and have caused an influx of new evidence that has recreated the ancient world. One cannot be wholly ignorant of topography and local color and thoroughly understand the temperament of a people. A summer vacation spent amid the classic scenes of Italy and Greece will leave a vital impress upon the teacher and enkindle a wise enthusiasm that will be a potent and vitalizing force in the classroom.

Practice and Prospect

Edited by J. J. SCHLICHER

THE HIGH-SCHOOL LATIN AUTHORS

The choice of high-school authors in Latin is largely determined by factors outside of the high school. The most potent of these has always been the specific college-entrance requirement. And this has, to all appearances, been made so specific without any very adequate reason, either in the needs of the college or in those of the high school. But it has been a fact, nevertheless, and has naturally led to the publication of numerous editions of those parts of particular authors which were mentioned in the college catalogues, to the exclusion of the rest; so that, even if the teacher wished to do so, he could not exercise much choice in the reading of his class, owing to the lack of suitable editions. More than that, the books in Latin composition have in the course of time all been based, more or less directly, upon these specific portions of Caesar and Cicero, and, if the teacher wishes to use these books to best advantage, he must perforce read the parts of these authors just as they are presupposed in the composition books. More recently we have had a Vocabulary and a Syntax of High-School Latin, both useful books, which appear to take these limitations for granted, as if they were ordained to continue, or were inherent in the nature of things.

Now, other things being equal, it is easier to teach Latin in this way, and certain results can, no doubt, be reached more quickly. Efficiency of a kind is gained, but it is a narrow efficiency, and narrowing in its effects. If we aim only at that, we leave out of account what will always be the most important factor in the whole situation—the teacher himself. Isolated as he usually is, and overloaded with class work, he is robbed by such a practice as this, of any incentive he might otherwise have to extend his acquaintance with classical authors, ancient history, or ancient life, beyond that required by the routine reading of his class.

Two results inevitably follow. The teacher's dealing with his subject, while it may become externally more perfect, becomes also more restricted in its outlook from year to year, and, finally, more mechanical in its methods. It is not only the spirit of inquiry, and the keenness for new light on the author himself that is lost, but with it, and inseparable from it, also the interest in the relation between the work and the class. For by long habit the teacher comes finally to do his work more or less automatically, and without that vitalizing grapple with new ideas and situations upon which his whole progress depends.

And in the second place, the restricted routine of reading cuts off the highschool teacher from touch with the larger field in which he works. Having no occasion, and little time, to keep posted on anything but his own narrow round, he soon loses interest in all the rest. It is futile to offer classical magazines to those who will only at long intervals find in them anything that has even the remotest bearing on what they themselves are doing year after year. If the extent of their province bore any sort of respectable relation to that of classical scholarship as a whole, we should not, as we now are, be confronted more and more plainly with the prospect of a complete divorce between the interests of the secondary school and those of the university.

A wider range of reading in the high school would have a good effect in still another line. For every author that the teacher takes up and studies over with a view to adapting it to the needs of his class is itself, in a way, a piece of independent and pioneer work with him, and so, an important cultivation of his powers, of which he is largely deprived by a practice of reading the same thing every year.

The writer has for some time felt that this matter is one of the very first importance, deserving the attention not only of the secondary teachers themselves, but of the colleges and universities. For the latter depend upon and work with the product of the high schools, and in turn must prepare teachers for them. If the work of the high school is not sound and vigorous, it involves all other work as well. It is to throw some light on the situation that the information which is presented in this article was gathered.

Second year.—The two Latin authors who are most commonly considered as available for the reading of the second year divide the field very unevenly between them. The Gallic War is read everywhere, while the Biographies of Nepos, if used at all, are as a rule used only during a part of the year, generally the last part. Still the number of teachers who have read Nepos in their classes is not so small as appears to be generally thought. Of those who replied to this question, something over half had done so, and with most of these it has become a regular part of their practice. Nepos is read much more extensively in the East than in the West. About 75 per cent of the teachers in the New England and Middle states had used him in their classes, as against only 33 per cent in the rest of the country. And in the latter section the older states of the Middle West and those of the Pacific coast are rather more favorable toward Nepos than the rest.

A few of those who have made an attempt to read Nepos in the second year seem to have had very bad luck. For they speak of it with the air of people who cannot be fooled more than once. But these are exceptions. The great majority of those who have used Nepos find an advantage in doing so, especially during a part of the year. Compared with Caesar he is found to be slightly more difficult, though not so uneven in difficulty. It may be, as several teachers suggest, that this greater difficulty is only apparent, and that it arises from the fact that our beginner's books are so often constructed with a view to preparing for Caesar. The most generally recognized advantage of Nepos, as one would expect, is found in the greater interest and

the greater variety of his subject-matter. The objection to Nepos on the ground that his Latin is not good, because it is not exactly the same as that of Cicero in all its usages, is certainly one that deserves soon to be laid in its grave. People do not all write alike, even today, and it would be a weary world, if they did.

On the other hand, it must not be assumed that the general use of Caesar is due to his being found entirely satisfactory for the work of the second year. Of 115 who replied to this question, only 46 consider the Gallic War to be the right sort of book for the purpose; 24 find it lacking in variety, 26 in interest to the children, and 19 too difficult. Now, fortunately, the two most serious of these objections can be met by the use of Nepos, for, as we saw, variety and interest are precisely the qualities in which teachers generally find him to be superior. It is a pity, therefore, that so little freedom is still allowed in many places, or felt to exist, in the matter of the high-school authors. All teachers are not alike, nor all classes, and those qualities of an author which work well in one case may lead to comparative failure in another. It is certainly not too much to ask that in each case the tools that yield the best results should be fully and freely available.

The answers to the question in what order the books of Caesar should be read are in at least five-sixths of the cases evidently based on the assumption that the first four books of the Gallic War are meant. Of these teachers, somewhat less than half think that they should be read in their regular order. These who do not think so are again divided about evenly into two sections. Half of them—for the most part in New England—begin with Book II, and read Book I later on in the year. The other half—chiefly in the Middle West—begin with Book I, but read only the Helvetian campaign (sometimes only to chap. xii), and then pass from chap. xxix directly to the second book, leaving the campaign with Ariovistus (chaps. xxx—liv) until some time later, nearly always till the last thing in the year. A few would omit Book I altogether. Something over a dozen, particularly on the Pacific coast, believe in reading selections instead of reading complete books. But even this show of independence will be found in many cases to be due to the teacher's using a book of selections instead of a complete text of Caesar.

Discouraging as this situation is, it is easily explained. Most people prefer to read over ground with which they are thoroughly familiar even if their leisure is greater than that of the average high-school teacher. Then, also, the complete editions of the *Gallic War* in most cases have careful and adequate notes only on the first four books. But for all that, it is true, as several teachers say, that the subject-matter of the last three books is, on the whole, considerably more varied and generally more interesting than that of the first four. The view that the second-year's reading is good only for a drill ground in grammar, and that nothing else need take up the teacher's attention, is fortunately found only in a very few instances. With all their shortcomings, pupils will always get more from their instruction in some

respects, than what is aimed at directly in the teaching, and, whatever may be the teacher's idea as to the main object of the year's work, the other avenues should at least be kept open and all possible obstacles removed from them. And lastly, there is no good reason for saying that the reading matter of the second year lacks variety or interest on the part of those who have never given Nepos a fair trial, nor have even explored all the possibilities of the Gallic War itself.

Third year.—In the third year, out of 141 teachers, 50 had, in addition to Cicero's orations, read some of his letters, 51 had read Sallusts' Catiline, 7 the Jugurthine War, 13 the De senectute, 1 the De amicitia, 2 the Civil War, and 5 the prose version of the Phormio, recently published by Fairclough & Richardson. The letters are read rather more extensively in the West than in the East, while the opposite is true of the De senectute and Sallust. The Phormio, with one exception, was read only in the far West.

It should be stated that the more extensive reading in the eastern states is often due to a Latin course of five or six years. In four-year courses Sallust's Catiline is very frequently read at sight or in selections, supplementary to the Orations against Catiline.

About one-fourth of the replies state that the works just mentioned are not so good for third-year reading as the orations, or that they are not suitable for other reasons. The De senectute is quite generally found to be too advanced chiefly on account of the character of the contents and the somewhat philosophical nature of the reasoning. In regard to the Jugarthine War the chief criticism seems to be the lack of a suitable edition. The Catiline is spoken of most frequently as good supplementary reading, while the points made in favor of the letters are their inherent interest and the light they throw on Cicero and Roman life. It is stated by way of criticism, and justly, as it seems to the writer, that the selection of letters now often printed in the same book with the orations is not as a rule well made. The experience with the simplified Phormio appears to have been entirely successful, so far as it has gone. Every teacher who has used it speaks enthusiastically of the interest with which the class took it up.

In some places where the *Catiline* of Sallust was used in whole or part, it displaced one or more of the *Orations against Catiline*, the two being dovetailed into each other so as to make a more complete whole. For there is, undoubtedly, as several teachers express themselves, a danger of getting "too much Catiline."

When the Committee on College-Entrance Requirements in Latin named the Orations against Catiline, for the Manilian Law and for Archias, as representing the amount to be read, it was not intended that these should be given preference over others, except as a special case was made of the two last named But it appears that these six orations are in actual practice the ones which are read most frequently. There is, however, a very commendable and rather widespread disposition to break away from this confinement. Especially in

regard to the speeches against Catiline it is thought by many that one, if not more, might very profitably be omitted, and other reading substituted for them.

The vote on which of the four might be omitted, is interesting, and most people will agree with it. Out of 141 teachers 3 think the first oration could be omitted; 72 the second; 24 the third; 28 the fourth. In a few cases the statement is made that parts of the orations mentioned should be left out. In regard to the second oration some say that it gives practically nothing new, and others object to the characterization of Catiline's followers which it contains. What disposition there is to leave out the third, is found chiefly with those who use Sallust's Catiline as supplementary reading, and thus get the story of the discovery of the conspiracy, which the third oration also contains. One interesting suggestion is to read the historical parts of Sallust's Catiline, and drop in the first and fourth orations of Cicero at their proper places.

On the question whether one or more of the *Orations against Catiline* should actually be omitted, the vote was 59 to 52. It is thus apparent that the practice is less radical than the personal inclinations of the teachers, and that it is influenced somewhat by other considerations, chiefly among which is the fact that many Latin compositions are so constructed that the omission of one or the other of these orations would result in the loss of just so much of the grammar for that year. There is quite a disposition to substitute something also for the *Manilian Law*, and to put the *Archias* off till the fourth year. And there are some who would put the whole of Cicero off till the fourth year, and read Vergil in the third, contending, with much reason, that the subject-matter of Cicero's orations is meant for grown men and makes little appeal to young pupils.

Among the orations outside of the six mentioned above that for Marcellus has a long lead, 58 having used it, as against 28 for the Actio prima against Verres or parts of this and other Verrines, 20 for Ligarius, 20 for some oration against Antony, usually the fourth or fourteenth, 16 for the Pro Roscio, and 13 for the Defense of Milo. Other speeches have but a vote or two each. Perhaps two-thirds of those who have read the orations just named find them good substitutes for the ones they displace on the list of six. Where a specific statement is made, it is generally that they are more interesting to the pupils than the others. Of those mentioned perhaps the one for Roscius is found to have least interest for the average class, and both it and the Milo are found to be a little more difficult than the rest.

Fourth year.—Of all the authors that have been candidates for a place beside Caesar, Cicero, and Virgil, Ovid has clearly been the most successful. Of the 141 teachers, 90 have read Ovid with their classes; but these figures alone do not tell the whole story. While the vogue of Sallust and Nepos is found largely in the East, that of Ovid extends evenly over the whole country. And it is evident, furthermore, that it is on the increase. The interest in him is reported to be great, almost without exception. The chief reason for

this is, no doubt, that he is in hardly any respect beyond the comprehension and appreciation of the pupils. He is, indeed, often read with good success during the last months of the third year, the chief object being to give those who drop their Latin at the end of that year a taste of Latin poetry.

Virgil, in addition to the first six books of the Aeneid, is also read quite extensively. Selections of single books from the last half of the Aeneid were read by 46 out of a total of 141, almost exclusively east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio. The Ecloques, in whole or part, were read by 49, all but 14 of whom were in the eastern states. The reading of selections from the Georgics is largely confined to New England, 9 out of the total of 16.

Of these various substitutes and additions to Aeneid I-VI, Ovid and the selections from the last half of the Aeneid are regarded as the most suitable, but Ovid's popularity is far the greater of the two. On the Eclogues opinions are about equally divided. Some say that their pupils are much interested in them, while the rest find them rather remote to their comprehension, and more difficult than the other reading. The same is evidently true also of the Georgics, though here much seems to depend upon the parts which are chosen.

The popularity of the first six books of the Aeneid is very unequal. No one thought that the first could be omitted and only one thought so of the second, and 6 each of the fourth and sixth. But 33 find it possible to dispense with the third, and 73 with the fifth. The fifth book is quite commonly looked upon as nothing better than an interruption of the story. It has some warm friends in classes composed of boys, owing to its subject-matter, which, on the other hand, is anathema to the girls. The universal criticism of the third book is its monotony of incident, and, in some cases, the frequent change of scene without any sufficient variety of events. The difficulties of the sixth book are not able to make much headway against the natural curiosity about its contents, and what objection there is to the fourth is due to the observation that the hero invites the contempt of the boys, or to the view that the whole subject is unfit for mixed classes, or is too far along for them to appreciate. But the paltry six votes show that there is but little heart in the objections after all. The view that the fourth book is not necessary to the narrative seems to be confined to a single individual.

The substitutes proposed for the books thus marked for omission are generally those mentioned above, Ovid leading by a good margin. But other books are also suggested—the *De senectute*, Horace's *Odes*, Catullus, Terence, Curtius, Nepos, Livy, Pliny's *Letters*, the Latin Testament, and various lines of collateral works, such as mythology, Roman life, etc.

The vote upon whether there should be Latin composition in the fourth year results in a sweeping victory for composition—77 for it, 41 against it, and 14 doubtful. The cause of composition, so far as this year is concerned, seems to be strongest in those states of the Middle West to the east of the Missippi, and weakest in those to the west of it, with the rest of the country more evenly divided.

Current Cbents

[Edited by Clarence W. Gleason, Volkmann School, Boston, Mass., for the territory covered by the Association of New England and the Atlantic States; Daniel W. Lothman, East High School, Cleveland, Ohio, for the Middle States, west to the Mississippi River; Walter Miller, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo., for the Southern States; and by Frederick C. Eastman, the University of Iowa, Iowa City, Ia., for the territory west of the Mississippi, exclusive of Louisiana and Texas. This department will present everything that is properly news—occurrences from month to month, meetings, changes in faculties, performances of various kinds, etc. All news items should be sent to the associate editors named above.]

New England

The unusual interest shown in matters classical in New England during the past month is a hopeful sign. At Cambridge the new Emerson Hall was crowded to overflowing at Professor Shorey's six lectures on the "Life and Letters at Athens," and that in spite of conflicts with several popular lectures and concerts. In the following week Professor Gilbert Murray gave three lectures in Boston (Lowell Institute) on the Greek "Drama." Here again the large hall was so crowded that it was almost impossible for a late comer to find a seat. The large numbers present at both courses ought to give renewed courage to the faint-hearted and pessimistic classicists who are looking forward with gloomy forebodings to a Greekless world.

The Classical Association of New England held its annual meeting on Friday and Saturday, April 12 and 13, at Yale University, New Haven, with an attendance of about one hundred and fifty. Professor Charles Upson Clark of New Haven was chosen president of the Association for 1912-13.

Harvard University.—The Harvard Classical Club has had a busy month. On March 13 the club acted as host in a joint meeting with the Modern Language Conference, at which Professor E. K. Rand gave the principal address on "Originality and Tradition in Milton's Paradise Lost." The next meeting of the club took the form of a reception to Professor Shorey, who talked informally to the members on various matters relating to studying and teaching the classics. The annual dinner of the club was held at a Boston hotel on April 10. Besides a lively poem on Aristophanes, addresses were given by the club president, Professor George H. Chase, Professor George Lyman Kittredge, of the English Department, Professor Charles P. Parker, and Professor Donald Cameron, of Boston University. Dr. Chandler Rathbon Post has been appointed assistant professor of Greek and Fine Arts.

Professor Clifford H. Moore lectured on March 29 at Princeton University on "Oriental Mysteries in the Roman Empire," and on March 30 at the University Museum, Philadelphia, on "The Eleusinian Mysteries."

Amherst College.—Amherst is carrying out in a most vigorous manner the scheme of classical activity outlined some time ago. Besides a series of six

public lectures on the "Development of the Greek Drama," the college has the great privilege of a two months' visit by Professor Murray, who will teach as well as lecture.

Pennsylvania

Dickinson College.—The following letter has been received from Professor Mervin G. Filler:

For many years past as a college teacher of Latin I have read, naturally with great interest, the endless effusions, each "last word," on the value and place of the classics in modern education. But I have seen in print very little definite information bearing upon the actual conditions in our various colleges. It would be particularly helpful to know the proportion of students continuing to elect Latin after they have finished the required courses, and the capacity of such students as compared with their mates.

In the hope that other teachers may be interested and prompted to indulge the same cacoethes scribendi I send you the figures for the Senior class of Dickinson.

	coomico oci	soomer & bon	~)	ou one m	Sures for the comor chips of Dickinson
I.	Number	completing	rec	quired Fr	eshman course (4 hours)
2.	66	66	in	addition	Sophomore elec. (3 hours)30
3.	64	44	44	44	Soph. and Jun. elec. (6 hours) 23
4.	66	64	44	46	Soph., Jun., Sen. (9 hours)

It should be added that 4 of Group 3, entering with credits, complete their course here in 3 years; so that of a class of 70, 17 are as Seniors still studying Latin, and have worked in the department constantly from entrance.

Equally suggestive would be a study of the capacity of the students who in our various colleges continue to elect Latin.

Of the 17 Seniors mentioned above, 10 are women, 7 men.

We grade all students who pass in four sections—A, B, C, D. The rating in all their subjects for their last completed (Junior) year is as follows: in A Section, 5; in B Section, 11; in C section, 1.

As a result of a careful study of the personnel of my classes for some years past I think I have seen that the chief reasons why the students of a small college do not continue to show interest in the classics are, first, lack of preparation and consequent discouragement, and second, unwillingness to submit to the more rigid demands in the way of time and effort made by most courses in the classics.

University of Pennsylvania.—The one hundred and first regular meeting of the Classical Club of Philadelphia was held on the evening of Friday, March 8, when Professor A. L. Wheeler, of Bryn Mawr College, read a paper on "The Supposed Genesis of Satura as a Literary Term." The one hundred and second meeting was held on Friday, April 19, when Professor W. B. McDaniel, of the University of Pennsylvania, under the title "Reminiscences," gave a very interesting account of the survival of ancient ways and customs among the modern Italian peasants.

The officers for the coming academic year were elected, as follows: President, Dr. F. B. Brandt, of the Central High School; Vice-President, Professor Walter Dennison, of Swarthmore College; Secretary and Treasurer, Dr. B. W. Mitchell, of the Central High School.

Ohio

Columbus.—On February 17 the Columbus Latin Club met at Hotel Southern for its second meeting of the season. Twenty-six members were

present at the dinner and listened to the scholarly address of Professor W. H. Johnson of Denison University. The subject was "The Two Agrippinas, Mother and Grandmother of Nero." Tracing the course of the bitter feeling which rent the house of Augustus, Professor Johnson took a different view of these famous women from that advanced by Ferrero in his volume, The Women of the Caesars. The speaker based his opinion upon statements of Tacitus and Suetonius, not upon a theory of probabilities.

Illinois

Chicago.—In connection with the twenty-fourth educational conference of the academies and high schools in relations with the University of Chicago, departmental conferences were held in the interests of the various departments. The classical departments discussed the co-ordination of secondary-school Latin and college Latin, and the secondary-school recitation versus the college recitation. Papers on these subjects were read by Mr. Walter Johnson, of the Lane Technical High School, and Miss Laura Wright, of the Lake High School, respectively. The papers were presented as a result of visits to the university classes by various high-school teachers.

The Lane Classical Society.—The following notes furnished by Mr. Walter E. Johnson are of especial interest as coming from a technical high school:

The Lane Technical High School of Chicago has a classical society. It was organized when the Latin Department was organized some three years ago. It has a working membership of about 30; while nearly 75 students claim connection with it, some of whom, not being now in Latin classes, do not find time for regular attendance at the meetings which occur twice a month.

The object of the society is twofold: first, to have opportunity for reading and discussing subjects for which time cannot be taken in the class hour; second, to give scope for the students' initiative in taking up such subjects

and in carrying on the work in an organized way.

Any topic of either immediate or remote classical interest may be taken up. This year connected studies in Roman history have been pursued, the students volunteering to give the consecutive topics. A committee of three once visited the section of Roman antiquities in the Field Museum and made a study of what they found there. In making their report they specialized and each made memory drawings and gave oral descriptions of items in his class: e.g., candelabra, and agricultural implements. One, a Junior, gave a study in etymology which was worth while. Another, a Senior, made a study of Roman law, of interest to all, and of inestimable value to him. Other subjects deal with myths and legends, biography, literature, and the various phases of ancient art.

A definite line of activity engaged in is the procuring of choice pictures and books for the department.

The society is decidedly helpful to the department, as well as to the members who take part in the programs or in society work.

Not the least important feature is the fact that it is their work.

Springfield.—On Friday evening, March 22, a Latin entertainment was given by the Latin Club of the Springfield High School. This club is composed of members of the Latin classes of the three upper grades and numbers 160. The program was as follows: (1) Latin Song, "Lauriger Horatius"; (2) Declamation, "Cicero's Invective against Catiline"; (3) "A Roman School"; (4) Drill of the Vestal Virgins; (5) Violin Solo; (6) The Parting Scene between Dido and Aeneas; (7) Opening of the Letters (Cicero in Catilinam iii, cap. 3, 4, 5); (8) Latin Song, "Gaudeamus Igitur"; (9) Tableaux: Pandora, Niobe and Her Daughter, The Fates, The Vestal Tuccia, Iris. Two numbers, besides the Latin songs, were entirely in Latin, viz., the Latin declamation and the "Roman School." The entertainment, the first of the kind ever given in Springfield, was an unqualified success. Although it required much time and labor, the teachers feel that they were well repaid for their efforts in the increased interest that has been aroused in the Latin work of the school.

Lincoln.—On March 29 the Sophomore Class of the Lincoln High School gave Miss Paxson's "A Roman School." The play was presented at the regular Friday rhetorical exercises.

The presentation of the play was both enjoyable and profitable. A greater interest has been aroused in the study of Latin, and the classical department has been brought into closer touch with the other departments of the school, every one of which contributed a share to the presentation.

Minnesota

Carleton College.—The enrolment in Greek in Carleton College is much larger than in many years. This is partly accounted for by some good illustrated lectures on Greece formerly given by the co-operation of the Latin, English, and Biblical departments, but largely by the promise held out of a new method of presenting the subject based on English derivatives together with a briefer and more direct treatment of grammar and syntax. The first year class began reading the Gospel of John in October and the Anabasis in January. The second year is given to the Protagoras and Homer, the third to the Clouds and the Antigone. During the first two years word lists based on English derivatives are constantly used, covering two thousand words.

Kansas

The sixth annual meeting of the Classical Association of Kansas and Western Missouri was held at Baker University, April 19 and 20. This association is thoroughly alive and the spirit of conference and fellowship is remarkable. The principal address was given by Professor F. C. Eastman, of the State University of Iowa, entitled "As Others See Us." The day program represented, in good distribution, the various phases of classical interest.

Wesleyan University.—The Classical Association of Kansas Wesleyan University has had a very prosperous year. The programs have consisted of papers and lectures by members of the faculty and other scholars, and in particular by the students, who have varied the program with ingenious classical

performances. Each year there has been a dramatic performance with classical setting. Among these was "the Trial of 'Pius Aeneas,'" an original composition; the story of the first three books of the *Iliad*, each character translating his own part; and "A Roman Wedding." There were many unique and ingenious features, and the whole work has resulted in a greatly increased interest in the classics.

Kansas City High School.—A cena Romana was given this last winter by the Classical Club of the high school. The banquet was elaborately prepared and presented, and great care was taken to make the cena true to ancient life in all particulars. The spectators were much instructed and delighted with the talents and ingenuity displayed by the boys who took part in the entertainment.

Nebraska

Lincoln.—The teachers of Greek and of Latin in the State University, and in the colleges and schools in Lincoln and its vicinity gave a dinner on April 30 in honor of Professor Grove E. Barber, the recently elected president of the Classical Association of the Middle West and South.

Arkansas

Hendrix College (Conway).—The "Sodalitas Latina," a semi-social organization of the College, held a very interesting meeting on April 4. The program was as follows: (1) A talk on a "Roman Dinner," with especial reference to the forms of entertainment incident thereto. (2) The reading of stories told at Roman dinners, e.g., Pliny (ix. 33), The Wonderful Dolphin; Petronius (62), The Werewolf. (3) Two contests involving a knowledge of Roman history and Latin vocabulary. The consolation prize was a placenta in the shape of a schoolboy with a dunce-cap on. (4) A talk on Vesuvius and Pompeii (illustrated) by Professor Simmons; the students had all read Pliny's account of the eruption.

Tennessee

The Tennessee Philological Association met this year with the University of Chattanooga on February 23. Among the papers of special interest to the side of the classics were the following: "Some Religious Ideas Underlying Greek Tragedy," by Miss Cloe Thompson, of the Girls' Preparatory School; "Some Phases of the Dative in Latin," by Professor R. B. Steele, of Vanderbilt University; "The Number Three in Roman Magic and Superstition," by Professor Travenner, of the Middle Tennessee Normal School.

Georgia

Young's College.—The Latin classes are giving this year "The School Boy's Dream," published in the Classical Journal (January, 1912), Horace's Ode 9 from Book III, "Integer Vitae" to "Fleming," and the choruses by the College Glee Club from Professor Miller's Dido.

Thomasville.—Miss Bessie Hall Merrill has compiled two little Latin scenes for classroom dialogue, one the interview between Caesar and the

Aeduan Council, and the other the meeting of Aeneas and Achates with Dido and her court. Such work as this cannot fail to be of great value both to instructor and student in stimulating interest, furnishing variety of each, while all the time fixing more definitely in the students' minds Latin words, phrases, and sentences, which few exercises would do. This work has the added advantage of giving a good natural occasion for oral exercises in Latin.

Florida

The Florida State Classical Association held its second annual conference at Jacksonville, Fla., December 28, 1911. As this session followed immediately after the meeting of the High-School section, over a hundred and ten persons were present at the call to order. The president of the Association made a brief address on the subject, "Can Florida Afford to Neglect the Classics?" emphasizing the fact that, while classical teaching in the state is not yet done to best advantage, secondary education in Florida could not displace Latin without incalculable loss. The view of Professor Lord of Dartmouth College was cited as strong and sensible, viz., that Latin, rightly understood, can be made one of the most practicable of subjects. "Latin and Greek in Florida" was the general theme discussed in papers dealing with the high school and the college. Those participating and presenting helpful and encouraging statements were: Dr. James N. Anderson, of the State University; Professor W. N. Sheats, ex-state superintendent of education; Dean N. M. Salley, of the normal school of the State College for Women; Professor J. A. Granberry, Jasper Normal Institute; Professor M. J. Okerlund, of Taylor County High School, and Professor B. B. Lane, of the Bradford County High School. Dr. Edmund M. Hyde, not present at the Classical section, read an effective paper the following morning before the State Educational Association on "The Progress of Classics in American Schools." Those attending the classical session considered it a successful one. The first annual conference, the year before in Pensacola, organized with an attendance of only twenty-four. The Association feels it has a clear mission before it. Former officers were re-elected: President, C. E. Boyd; Vice-President, W. N. Sheats; Secretary, Miss Lucile Patton; Chairman of the Executive Committee, Mrs. F. N. Clayton.

AUDITORS' NOTICE

This certifies that we have examined the accounts of Professor H. J. Barton, secretary-treasurer of the Classical Association of the Middle West and South, for the year May 1, 1911, to April 1, 1912, and find them correct and, by virtue of the power conferred by the Association, we hereby approve them.

D. D. HAINS H. M. KINGERY

CRAWFORDSVILLE IND., May 2, 1912

Recent Books

Foreign books in this list may be obtained of Lemcke and Buechner, 30–32 West 27th St., New York City; G. E. Stechert & Co., 151–55 West 25th St., New York City.

- BLINKENBERG, C. The Thunderweapon in Religion and Folklore. A Study in Comparative Archaeology. Cambridge University Press, 1912. Pp. xii+122. \$1.65.
- Burnet, J. Platonis Opera. Tom. III, fasc. 2, Tetralogiam VI continens. (Oxford Classical Texts.) Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1912. \$1.00.
- CANTER, H. V. The Jugurthine War of C. Sallustius Crispus. Edited, with introd. and notes. Boston: Atkinson, Mentzer & Co., 1912. Pp. xvii+173. \$1.00.
- DICKINS, G. Catalogue of the Acropolis Museum. Vol. I, "Archaic Sculpture." Cambridge University Press, 1912. 10s. 6d.
- Dragoumis, Julia D. Tales of a Greek Island. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1912. Pp. 379. \$1.35.
- FORSTER, E. S. Isocrates, Cyprian Orations: Evagoras, ad Nicoclem, Nicocles aut Cyprii. Edited, with introd. and notes. Oxford University Press, 1912. Pp. 160. \$0.00.
- FOWLER, W. WARDE. Rome. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1912. Pp. 256. \$0.50. (Home University Library of Modern Knowledge. London: Williams and Norgate.)
- SANDYS, J. E. Aristotle's Constitution of Athens. 2d ed., revised and enlarged. London: Macmillan, 1912. Pp. xcii+331. 12s. 6d.
- SEAGER, R. B. Explorations in the Island of Mochlos. Boston and New York: American School of Classical Studies at Athens, 1912. Pp. 112. \$6.00.
- SIMBECK, C. Ciceronis M. Tulli Cato Major de Senectute Liber. Leipzig: Teubner, 1912. Pp. 60. M. 3.60.
- THUMB, A. Handbook of the Modern Greek Vernacular. Grammar, Texts, Glossary.

 Trans. from the 2d improved and enlarged German edition by S. Angus. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 1912. Pp. xxxv+370. 125.
- WACE, A. J. B. AND THOMPSON, M. S. Prehistoric Thessaly. Cambridge University Press, 1912. Pp. 278, \$6.00.

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